



THE PROMISE AND CHALLENGE OF LED LIGHTING: A PRACTICAL GUIDE

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INTERNATIONAL DARK-SKY ASSOCIATION

The light-emitting diode (LED) is transforming the way we light our cities and towns, offering a once-in-a-lifetime chance to radically improve how we use energy and our outdoor spaces at night. With this opportunity comes an obligation to manage these changes responsibly and sustainably. The stakes are high and the potential rewards great, but outcomes depend critically on policymakers and the public having access to reliable information. IDA developed this document to provide planners, lighting designers and public officials an overview of the most important aspects of LED lighting and the choices and challenges involved in its municipal implementation.

What is LED?

LEDs use solid-state technology to convert electricity into light. Put simply, LEDs are very small light bulbs that fit into an electrical circuit. Unlike traditional incandescent bulbs, they don't have a filament that burns out and they don't get very warm. Initially, LEDs only emitted red, yellow, or green light, but now white LEDs are widely available. Early LEDs were also energy-inefficient and emitted little light, but due to technological advances LED efficiency and light output have doubled about every three years. Because of their improved quality and falling prices, LEDs are now replacing conventional high-intensity discharge (HID) lamp types for outdoor lighting in communities around the world.

Why Adopt This Technology?

The improved energy efficiency of LEDs means that, coupled with modern luminaire design, these lights allow for reduced illuminance without compromising safety. LEDs help lower carbon emissions by reducing the demand for electricity, which is still largely generated by burning fossil fuels. Another LED benefit is better control over the color content of light. Manufacturers now produce LEDs with “warm” color qualities at high energy efficiency, rendering old arguments about the perceived inefficiency of warm white LEDs moot. These same LED options also provide accurate color rendition without emitting excessive amounts of potentially harmful blue light (see below).

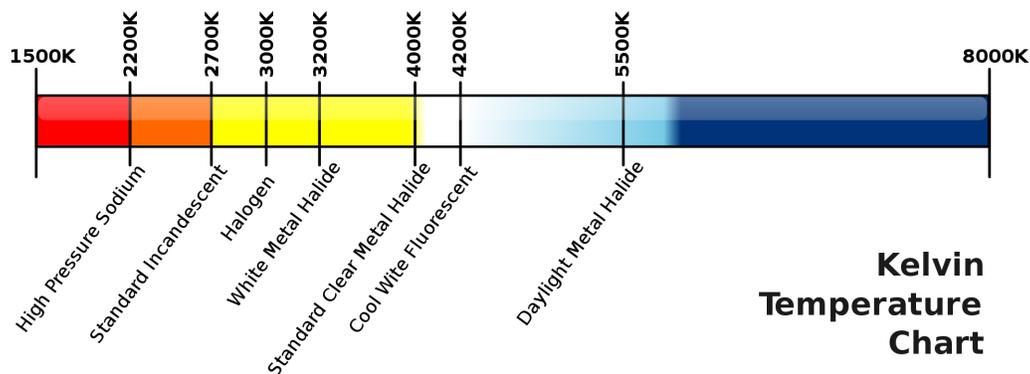
Relative to other outdoor lamps, LEDs are thought to be extremely long-lived. When switched on, LEDs are instantly at full brightness, unlike HID lamps that have a significant time delay to begin emitting light. LEDs also have very low minimum electricity thresholds to produce light, meaning they can be dimmed to much lower illumination levels when less light is needed and resulting in further energy savings.

Blue Light Is Bad

New technical capabilities often come with unanticipated challenges. Most white LED lighting has significant levels of potentially hazardous blue light. IDA published a report¹ in 2010 detailing the hazards of blue-rich white light sources. In the years since, scientific evidence has solidified around its conclusions. In June 2016, the American Medical Association (AMA) publicly concluded² that “white LED street lighting patterns [may] contribute to the risk of chronic disease in the populations of cities in which they have been installed.” The AMA recommends “minimizing and controlling blue-rich environmental lighting by using the lowest emission of blue light possible” in order to reduce potential negative effects on human health.

Concerns about blue light reach far beyond our health. Outdoor lighting with strong blue content is likely to worsen skyglow because it has a significantly larger geographic reach than lighting consisting of less blue. According to the 2016 “World Atlas of Artificial Night Sky Brightness” street lighting and outdoor lighting retrofits using 4000K lamps could result in a factor of 2.5 increase in light pollution.³ Given that the rate of increase of lighting as seen from Earth orbit is about 2 percent per year⁴, and much of the increase is attributable to white LED, it is all the more important to address this problem.

Blue-rich white light sources are also known to increase glare and compromise human vision, especially in the aging eye^{5,6}. These lights create potential road safety problems for motorists and pedestrians alike. In natural settings, blue light at night has been shown to adversely affect wildlife behavior and reproduction^{7,8}. This particularly true in cities, which are often stopover points for migratory species.



¹ <http://bit.ly/2gKiEfN>

² American Medical Association Council on Science and Public Health Report 2-A-16: “Human and Environmental Effects of Light Emitting Diode (LED) Community Lighting”, 2016 (PDF: <http://bit.ly/1UzSqVQ>)

³ Falchi et al., *Science Advances* (10 Jun 2016) Vol. 2, no. 6, e1600377. [10.1126/sciadv.1600377](https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1600377)

⁴ Kyba et al., Artificially lit surface of Earth at night increasing in radiance and extent. *Science Advances* (22 Nov 2017) Vol. 3, no. 11, e1701528. [10.1126/sciadv.1701528](https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1701528)

⁵ Lin et al. Model predicting discomfort glare caused by LED road lights. *Optics Express* (2014) Vol. 22, no. 15, 18056-71. [10.1364/OE.22.018056](https://doi.org/10.1364/OE.22.018056)

⁶ Sweater-Hickcox et al. Effect of different coloured luminous surrounds on LED discomfort glare perception. *Lighting Research Technology* (2013) Vol. 45, no. 4, 464-75. <http://lrt.sagepub.com/content/45/4/464>

⁷ Bennie et al. Ecological effects of artificial light at night on wild plants. *Journal of Ecology* (2016) Vol. 104, issue 3, 611-620. [10.1111/1365-2745.12551](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2745.12551)

⁸ Hori and Suzuki. Lethal effect of blue light on strawberry leaf beetle, *Galerucella griseascens* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae). *Scientific Reports* (2017) Article 2694. <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41598-017-03017-z>

The promise of cheaper outdoor lighting based on electricity and maintenance savings from LED conversion should be weighed against other factors, such as the blue light content of white LEDs. Blue-rich sources are the most efficient LEDs in terms of the conversion of electricity to light, and therefore have the lowest electricity cost to produce a given amount of light compared to “warmer,” less efficient white LED lamps. Every effort should be made to diminish or eliminate blue light exposure after dark.

Product Selection Considerations

Choosing LED products for outdoor lighting applications involves a series of considerations and tradeoffs. These include:

- **Luminous Efficiency** (Watts-to-lumens): How many lumens of light are produced per input Watt of electricity? More importantly, how many lumens from the light source are meeting the task (“Fixture Lumens” vs. “Lamp Lumens”)
- **Lumen Output**: How much light is produced relative to the amount required for a particular task? When replacing existing fixtures, it is important to use the only level of illumination needed, and not to adopt unneeded increases in brightness.
- **Correlated Color Temperature** (CCT): Does the light have a “warm” or “cool” quality?
- **Color Rendering Index** (CRI): How accurately does the light render colors to the human eye? A high CRI is not needed for all situations. The need for good color rendition should be considered relative to the lighting application in question.
- **Adaptive Control Integration**: Does the lighting make use of adaptive controls such as dimmers, timers, and/or motion sensors? These controls are the wave of the future in outdoor lighting and achieve additional energy savings, improve light source efficacy and increase visual task performance. It is important to build in the ability to make use of adaptive controls during the adoption of designs for new lighting installations, even if they will not immediately be implemented.
- **Heat Mitigation**: Is the lamp housing designed to adequately dissipate heat? Because LED efficiency decreases with rising operating temperature, controlling heat emitted by LED lamps is critical in warm climates.
- **Lumen Depreciation**: How robust is the lamp against efficiency loss over time? Manufacturers typically quote “L70,” the expected use time until a bulb reaches 70% of its initial light output.

Closely related to all these factors is expense: How much will LED replacement solutions cost? The price of commercial LED lighting products continues to drop, and capital cost recovery times for new LED street light installations, once 10 years or more, are now typically less than five years and continue to decline. As barriers to implementation fall, LED is gaining momentum as the lighting technology of choice in both new outdoor installations and existing replace-on-failure installations.

IDA Recommends

Already many white LED options are available on the outdoor lighting market and that number will only rise in the future. IDA has developed a set of recommendations for those choosing lighting systems. These suggestions will aid in the selection of lighting that is

energy and cost efficient, yet ensures safety and security, protects wildlife, and promotes the goal of dark night skies. These include:

- **Always choose fully shielded fixtures** that emit no light upward
- **Use “warm-white” or filtered LEDs** (CCT < 3000 K; S/P ratio < 1.2) to minimize blue emission
- **Look for products with adaptive controls** like dimmers, timers, and motion sensors
- **Consider dimming or turning off the lights during overnight hours**
- **Avoid the temptation to over-light** because of the higher luminous efficiency of LEDs.
- **Only light the exact space and in the amount required for particular tasks**

Learn more about outdoor lighting, blue light at night, and dark skies on the IDA website at www.darksky.org.

Missing the Dark

Health Effects of Light Pollution





In 1879, Thomas Edison's incandescent light bulbs first illuminated a New York street, and the modern era of electric lighting began. Since then, the world has become awash in electric light. Powerful lamps light up streets, yards, parking lots, and billboards. Sports facilities blaze with light that is visible for tens of miles. Business and office building windows glow throughout the night. According to the Tucson, Arizona-based International Dark-Sky Association (IDA), the sky glow of Los Angeles is visible from an airplane 200 miles away. In most of the world's large urban centers, stargazing is something that happens at a planetarium. Indeed, when a 1994 earthquake knocked out the power in Los Angeles, many anxious residents called local emergency centers to report seeing a strange "giant, silvery cloud" in the dark sky. What they were really seeing—for the first time—was the Milky Way, long obliterated by the urban sky glow.

None of this is to say that electric lights are inherently bad. Artificial light has benefited society by, for instance, extending the length of the productive day, offering more time not just for working but also for recreational activities that require light. But when artificial outdoor lighting becomes inefficient, annoying, and unnecessary, it is known as light pollution. Many environmentalists, naturalists, and medical researchers consider light pollution to be one of the fastest growing and most pervasive forms of environmental pollution. And a growing body of scientific research suggests that light

Mark A. Johnson/Alamy



Glare, overillumination, and sky glow (which makes the sky over a city look orange, yellow, or pink) are all forms of light pollution. These photos were taken in Goodwood, Ontario, a small town about 45 minutes northeast of Toronto during and the night after the regionwide 14 August 2003 blackout. The lights inside the house in the blackout picture were created by candles and flashlights.

pollution can have lasting adverse effects on both human and wildlife health.

When does nuisance light become a health hazard? Richard Stevens, a professor and cancer epidemiologist at the University of Connecticut Health Center in Farmington, Connecticut, says light photons must hit the retina for biologic effects to occur. “However, in an environment where there is much artificial light at night—such as Manhattan or Las Vegas—there is much more opportunity for exposure of the retina to photons that might disrupt circadian rhythm,” he says. “So I think it is not only ‘night owls’ who get those photons. Almost all of us awaken during the night for periods of time, and unless we have blackout shades there is some electric lighting coming in our windows. It is not clear how much is too much; that is an important part of the research now.”

According to “The First World Atlas of the Artificial Night Sky Brightness,” a report on global light pollution published in volume 328, issue 3 (2001) of the *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society*, two-thirds of the U.S. population and more than one-half of the European population have already lost the ability to see the Milky Way with the naked eye. Moreover, 63% of the world population and 99% of the population of the European Union and the United

States (excluding Alaska and Hawaii) live in areas where the night sky is brighter than the threshold for light-polluted status set by the International Astronomical Union—that is, the artificial sky brightness is greater than 10% of the natural sky brightness above 45° of elevation.

Light pollution comes in many forms, including sky glow, light trespass, glare, and overillumination. Sky glow is the bright halo that appears over urban areas at night, a product of light being scattered by water droplets or particles in the air. Light trespass occurs when unwanted artificial light from, for instance, a floodlight or streetlight spills onto an adjacent property, lighting an area that would otherwise be dark. Glare is created by light that shines horizontally. Overillumination refers to the use of artificial light well beyond what is required for a specific activity, such as keeping the lights on all night in an empty office building.

Distracted by the Light

The ecologic effects of artificial light have been well documented. Light pollution has been shown to affect both flora and fauna. For instance, prolonged exposure to artificial light prevents many trees from adjusting to seasonal variations, according to Winslow Briggs’s chapter on plant responses in

the 2006 book *Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting*. This, in turn, has implications for the wildlife that depend on trees for their natural habitat. Research on insects, turtles, birds, fish, reptiles, and other wildlife species shows that light pollution can alter behaviors, foraging areas, and breeding cycles, and not just in urban centers but in rural areas as well.

Sea turtles provide one dramatic example of how artificial light on beaches can disrupt behavior. Many species of sea turtles lay their eggs on beaches, with females returning for decades to the beaches where they were born to nest. When these beaches are brightly lit at night, females may be discouraged from nesting in them; they can also be disoriented by lights and wander onto nearby roadways, where

they risk being struck by vehicles.

Moreover, sea turtle hatchlings normally navigate toward the sea by orienting away from the elevated, dark silhouette of the landward horizon, according to a study published by Michael Salmon of Florida Atlantic University and colleagues in volume 122, number 1–2 (1992) of *Behaviour*. When there are artificial bright lights on the beach, newly hatched turtles become disoriented and navigate toward the artificial light source, never finding the sea.

Jean Higgins, an environmental specialist with the Florida Wildlife Conservation Commission Imperiled Species Management Section, says disorientation also contributes to dehydration and exhaustion in hatchlings. “It’s hard to say if the ones that have made it into the water aren’t more susceptible to predation at this later point,” she says.

Bright electric lights can also disrupt the behavior of birds. About 200 species of birds fly their migration patterns at night over North America, and especially during inclement weather with low cloud cover, they routinely are confused during passage by brightly lit buildings, communication towers, and other structures. “Light attracts birds and disorients them,” explains Michael Mesure, executive director of the Toronto-based Fatal Light Awareness Program (FLAP), which

How Outdoor Lighting Translates into Light Pollution

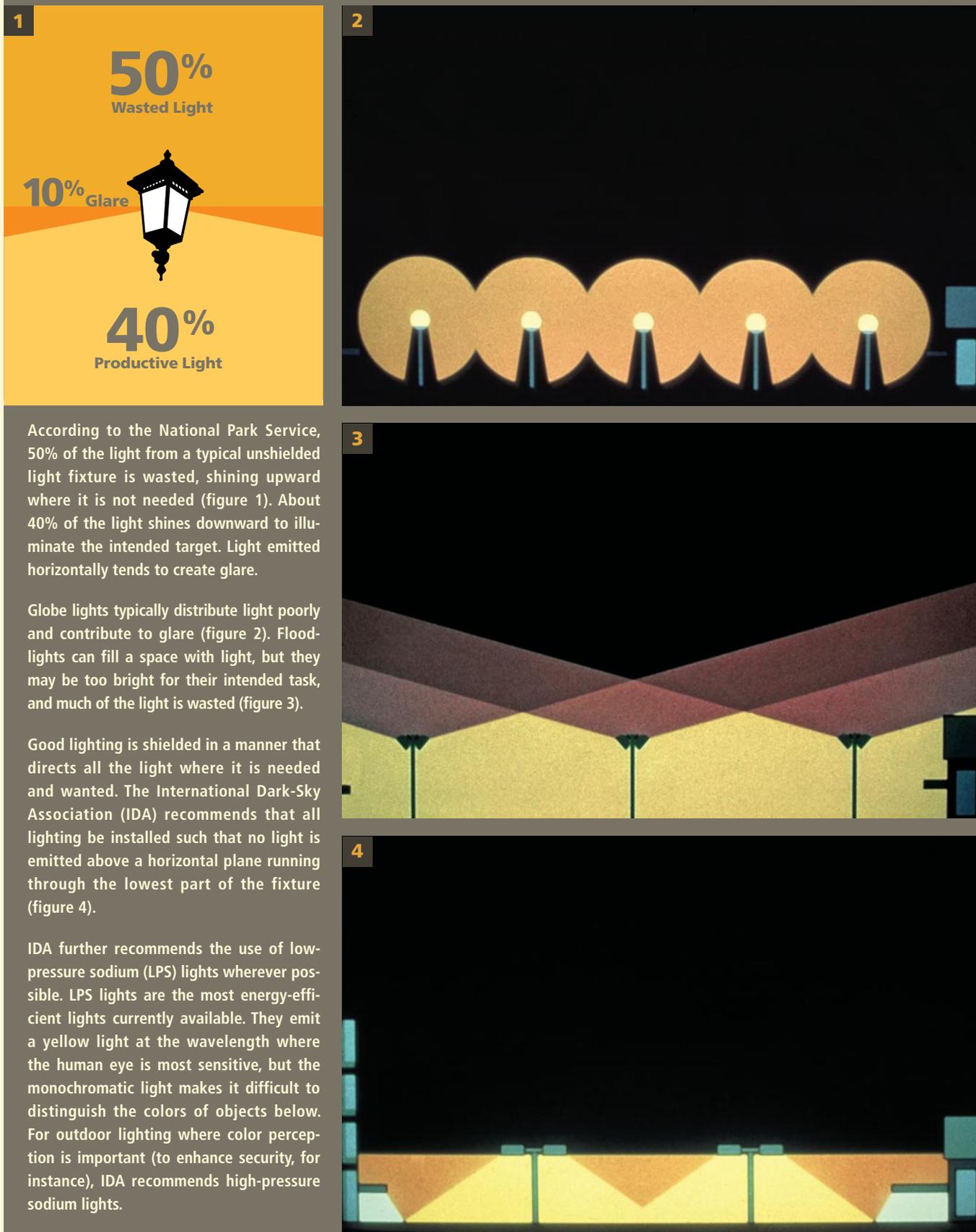


Figure 1: U.S. National Park Service, Matthew Ray/EHP; figures 2-4: International Dark-Sky Association

works to safeguard migratory birds in the urban environment. “It is a serious situation because many species that collide frequently are known to be in long-term decline and some are already designated officially as threatened.”

Each year in New York City alone, about 10,000 migratory birds are injured or killed crashing into skyscrapers and high-rise buildings, says Glenn Phillips, executive director of the New York City Audubon Society. The estimates as to the number of birds dying from collisions across North America annually range from 98 million to close to a billion. The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service estimates 5–50 million birds die each year from collisions with communication towers.

Turtles and birds are not the only wildlife affected by artificial nighttime lighting. Frogs have been found to inhibit their mating calls when they are exposed to excessive light at night, reducing their reproductive capacity. The feeding behavior of bats also is altered by artificial light. Researchers have blamed light pollution for declines in populations of North American moths, according to *Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting*. Almost all small rodents and carnivores, 80% of marsupials, and 20% of primates are nocturnal. “We are just now understanding the nocturnality of many creatures,” says Chad Moore, Night Sky Program manager with the National Park Service. “Not protecting the night will destroy the habitat of many animals.”

Resetting the Circadian Clock

The health effects of light pollution have not been as well defined for humans as for wildlife, although a compelling amount of epidemiologic evidence points to a consistent association between exposure to indoor artificial nighttime light and health problems such as breast cancer, says George Brainard, a professor of neurology at Jefferson Medical College, Thomas Jefferson University in Philadelphia. “That association does not prove that artificial light causes the problem. On the other

hand, controlled laboratory studies do show that exposure to light during the night can disrupt circadian and neuroendocrine physiology, thereby accelerating tumor growth.”

The 24-hour day/night cycle, known as the circadian clock, affects physiologic processes in almost all organisms. These processes include brain wave patterns, hormone production, cell regulation, and other biologic activities. Disruption of the circadian clock is linked to several medical disorders in humans, including depression, insomnia, cardiovascular disease, and cancer, says Paolo Sassone-Corsi, chairman of the Pharmacology Department at the University of California, Irvine, who has done extensive research on the circadian clock. “Studies show that the circadian cycle controls from ten to fifteen percent of our genes,” he explains. “So the disruption of the circadian cycle can cause a lot of health problems.”

On 14–15 September 2006 the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS) sponsored a meeting that focused on how best to conduct research on possible connections between artificial lighting and human health. A report of that meeting in the September 2007 issue of *EHP* stated, “One of the defining characteristics of life in the modern world is the altered patterns of light and dark in the built environment made possible by use of electric power.” The meeting report authors noted it may not be

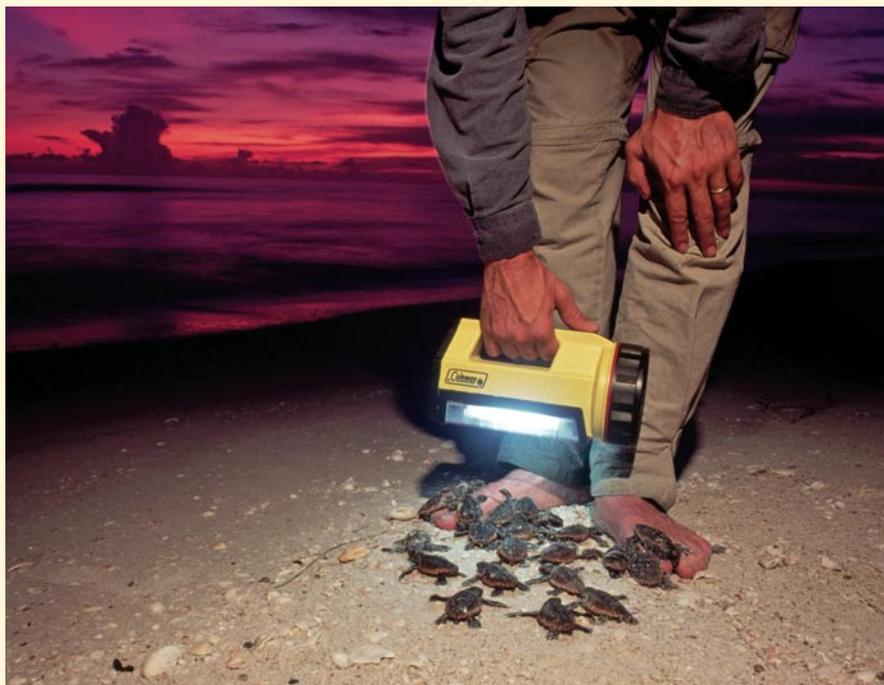
entirely coincidental that dramatic increases in the risk of breast and prostate cancers, obesity, and early-onset diabetes have mirrored the dramatic changes in the amount and pattern of artificial light generated during the night and day in modern societies over recent decades. “The science underlying these hypotheses has a solid base,” they wrote, “and is currently moving forward rapidly.”

The connection between artificial light and sleep disorders is a fairly intuitive one. Difficulties with adjusting the circadian clock can lead to a number of sleep disorders, including shift-work sleep disorder, which affects people who rotate shifts or work at night, and delayed sleep–phase syndrome, in which people tend to fall asleep very late at night and have difficulty waking up in time for work, school, or social engagements.

The sleep pattern that was the norm before the invention of electric lights is no longer the norm in countries where artificial light extends the day. In the 2005 book *At Day's Close: Night in Times Past*, historian Roger Ekirch of Virginia Polytechnic Institute described how before the Industrial Age people slept in two 4-hour shifts (“first sleep” and “second sleep”) separated by a late-night period of quiet wakefulness.

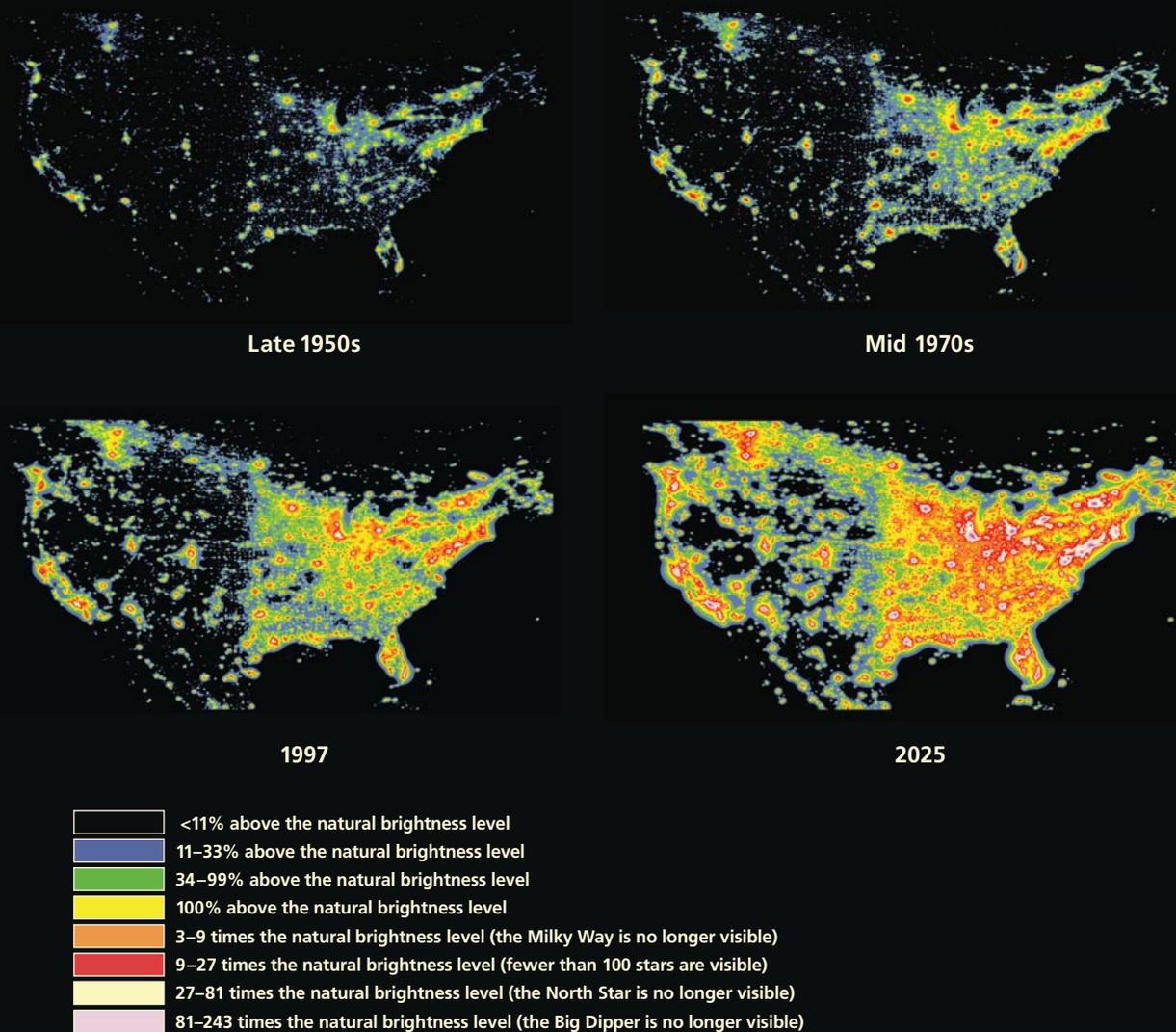
Thomas A. Wehr, a psychiatrist at the National Institute of Mental Health, has studied whether humans would revert back

to the two-shift sleep pattern if they were not exposed to the longer photoperiod afforded by artificial lighting. In the June 1992 *Journal of Sleep Research*, Wehr reported his findings on eight healthy men, whose light/dark schedule was shifted from their customary 16 hours of light and 8 hours of dark to a schedule in which they were exposed to natural and electric light for 10 hours, then darkness for 14 hours to simulate natural durations of day and night in winter. The subjects did indeed revert to the two-shift pattern, sleeping in two sessions of about 4 hours each separated by 1–3 hours of quiet wakefulness.



Turtle hatchlings instinctively orient away from the dark silhouette of the nighttime shore. Here hatchlings have been temporarily distracted by a bright lamp. Hatchlings and mother turtles distracted by shorefront lights can wander onto nearby roadways.

Increase in Artificial Night Sky Brightness in North America



Artificial night sky brightness at zenith, at sea level, for a standard clean atmosphere as a fraction of the average natural night sky brightness. These maps are based on upward light measured by the Defense Meteorological Satellite Program after accounting for propagation and scattering of that light in the atmosphere. The 2025 map assumes a constant population growth rate of 6% per year.

Source: <http://www.lightpollution.it/> © 2001 P. Cinzano, F. Falchi, C.D. Elvidge

Beyond Sleep Disorders

Alteration of the circadian clock can branch into other effects besides sleep disorders. A team of Vanderbilt University researchers considered the possibility that constant artificial light exposure in neonatal intensive care units could impair the developing circadian rhythm of premature babies. In a study published in the August 2006 issue

of *Pediatric Research*, they exposed newborn mice (comparable in development to 13-week-old human fetuses) to constant artificial light for several weeks. The exposed mice were unable to maintain a coherent circadian cycle at age 3 weeks (comparable to a full-term human neonate). Mice exposed for an additional 4 weeks were unable to establish a regular activity cycle.

The researchers concluded that excessive artificial light exposure early in life might contribute to an increased risk of depression and other mood disorders in humans. Lead researcher Douglas McMahon notes, “All this is speculative at this time, but certainly the data would indicate that human infants benefit from the synchronizing effect of a normal light/dark cycle.”

Since 1995, studies in such journals as *Epidemiology*, *Cancer Causes and Control*, the *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, and *Aviation Space Environmental Medicine*, among others, have examined female employees working a rotating night shift and found that an elevated breast cancer risk is associated with occupational exposure to artificial light at night. Mariana Figueiro, program director at the Lighting Research Center of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in Troy, New York, notes that permanent shift workers may be less likely to be disrupted by night work because their circadian rhythm can readjust to the night work as long as light/dark patterns are controlled.

In a study published in the 17 October 2001 *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, Harvard University epidemiologist Eva S. Schernhammer and colleagues from Brigham and Women's Hospital in Boston used data from the 1988 Nurses' Health Study (NHS), which surveyed 121,701 registered female nurses on a range of health issues. Schernhammer and her colleagues found an association between breast cancer and shift work that was restricted to women who had worked 30 or more years on rotating night shifts (0.5% of the study population).

In another study of the NHS cohort, Schernhammer and colleagues also found elevated breast cancer risk associated with rotating night shift work. Discussing this finding in the January 2006 issue of *Epidemiology*, they wrote that shift work was associated with only a modest increased breast cancer risk among the women studied. The researchers further wrote, however, that their study's findings "in combination with the results of earlier work, reduce the likelihood that this association is due solely to chance."

Schernhammer and her colleagues have also used their NHS cohort to investigate the connection between artificial light, night work, and colorectal cancer. In the 4 June 2003 issue of the *Journal of the National Cancer Institute*, they reported that nurses who worked night shifts at least 3 times a month for 15 years or more had a 35%



The International Agency for Research on Cancer has classified shift work as a probable human carcinogen. A study in the December 2008 issue of *Sleep* found that use of light exposure therapy, sunglasses, and a strict sleep schedule may help night-shift workers achieve a better-balanced circadian rhythm.

increased risk of colorectal cancer. This is the first significant evidence so far linking night work and colorectal cancer, so it's too early to draw conclusions about a causal association. "There is even less evidence about colorectal cancer and the larger subject of light pollution," explains Stevens. "That does not mean there is no effect, but rather, there is not enough evidence to render a verdict at this time."

The research on the shift work/cancer relationship is not conclusive, but it was enough for the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) to classify shift work as a probable human carcinogen in 2007. "The IARC didn't definitely call night shift work a carcinogen," Brainard says. "It's still too soon to go there, but there is enough evidence to raise the flag. That's why more research is still needed."

The Role of Melatonin

Brainard and a growing number of researchers believe that melatonin may be the key to understanding the shift work/breast cancer risk association. Melatonin, a hormone produced by the pineal gland, is secreted at night

and is known for helping to regulate the body's biologic clock. Melatonin triggers a host of biologic activities, possibly including a nocturnal reduction in the body's production of estrogen. The body produces melatonin at night, and melatonin levels drop precipitously in the presence of artificial or natural light. Numerous studies suggest that decreasing nocturnal melatonin production levels increases an individual's risk of developing cancer. [For more information on melatonin, see "Benefits of Sunlight: A Bright Spot for Human Health," *EHP* 116:A160–A167 (2008).]

One groundbreaking study published in the 1 December 2005 issue of *Cancer Research* implicated melatonin deficiency in what the report authors called a rational biologic explanation for the increased breast cancer risk in female night shift workers. The study involved female volunteers whose blood was collected under three different conditions: during daylight hours, during the night after 2 hours of

complete darkness, and during the night after exposure to 90 minutes of artificial light. The blood was injected into human breast tumors that were transplanted into rats. The tumors infused with melatonin-deficient blood collected after exposure to light during the night were found to grow at the same speed as those infused with daytime blood. The blood collected after exposure to darkness slowed tumor growth.

"We now know that light suppresses melatonin, but we are not saying it is the only risk factor," says first author David Blask, a research scientist at the Bassett Healthcare Research Institute in Cooperstown, New York. "But light is a risk factor that may explain [previously unexplainable phenomena]. So we need to seriously consider it."

The National Cancer Institute estimates that 1 in 8 women will be diagnosed with breast cancer at some time during her life. We can attribute only about half of all breast cancer cases to known risk factors, says Brainard. Meanwhile, he says, the breast cancer rate keeps climbing—incidence increased by more than 40% between 1973 and 1998, according to the Breast Cancer Fund—and

“we need to understand what’s going on as soon as possible.”

Linking Light Pollution to Human Health

The evidence that indoor artificial light at night influences human health is fairly strong, but how does this relate to light pollution? The work in this area has just begun, but two studies in Israel have yielded some intriguing findings. Stevens was part of a study team that used satellite photos to gauge the level of nighttime artificial light in 147 communities in Israel, then overlaid the photos with a map detailing the distribution of breast cancer cases. The results showed a statistically significant correlation between outdoor artificial light at night and breast cancer, even when controlling for population density, affluence, and air pollution. Women living in neighborhoods where it was bright enough to read a book outside at midnight had a 73% higher risk of developing breast cancer than those residing in areas with the least outdoor artificial lighting. However, lung cancer risk was not affected. The findings appeared in the January 2008 issue of *Chronobiology International*.

“It may turn out that artificial light exposure at night increases risk, but not entirely by the melatonin mechanism, so we need to do more studies of ‘clock’ genes—nine have so far been identified—and light exposure in rodent models and humans,” Stevens says. Clock genes carry the genetic instructions to produce protein products that control circadian rhythm. Research needs to be done not

just on the light pollution–cancer connection but also on several other diseases that may be influenced by light and dark.

Travis Longcore, co-editor of *Ecological Consequences of Artificial Night Lighting* and a research associate professor at the University of Southern California Center for Sustainable Cities, suggests two ways outdoor light pollution may contribute to artificial light–associated health effects in humans. “From a human health perspective, it seems that we are concerned with whatever increases artificial light exposure indoors at night,” he says. “The effect of outdoor lighting on indoor exposure could be either direct or indirect. In the direct impact scenario, the artificial light from outside reaches people inside at night at levels that affect production of hormones. In an indirect impact it would disturb people inside, who then turn on lights and expose themselves to more light.”

“The public needs to know about the factors causing [light pollution], but research is not going at the pace it should,” Blask says. Susan Golden, distinguished professor at the Center for Research on Biological Clocks of Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas, agrees. She says, “Light pollution is still way down the list of important environmental issues needing study. That’s why it’s so hard to get funds to research the issue.”

“The policy implications of unnecessary light at night are enormous,” says Stevens in reference to the health and energy ramifications [for more on the energy impact of light pollution, see “Switch On the Night: Policies for Smarter Lighting,” p. A28 this issue]. “It is fully as important an issue as

global warming.” Moreover, he says, artificial light is a ubiquitous environmental agent. “Almost everyone in modern society uses electric light to reduce the natural daily dark period by extending light into the evening or before sunrise in the morning,” he says. “On that basis, we are all exposed to electric light at night, whereas before electricity, and still in much of the developing world, people get twelve hours of dark whether they are asleep or not.”

Sources believe that the meeting at the NIEHS in September 2006 was a promising beginning for moving forward on the light pollution issue. “Ten years ago, scientists thought something was there, but couldn’t put a finger on it,” says Leslie Reinlib, a program director at the NIEHS who helped organize the meeting. “Now we are really just at the tip of the iceberg, but we do have something that’s scientific and can be measured.”

The 23 participants at the NIEHS-sponsored meeting identified a research agenda for further study that included the functioning of the circadian clock, epidemiologic studies to define the artificial light exposure/disease relationship, the role of melatonin in artificial light–induced disease, and development of interventions and treatments to reduce the impact of light pollution on disease. “It was a very significant meeting,” Brainard says. “It’s the first time the National Institutes of Health sponsored a broad multidisciplinary look at the light–environmental question with the intent of moving to the next step.”

Ron Chepesiuk

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON SCIENCE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

CSAPH Report 2-A-16

Subject: Human and Environmental Effects of Light Emitting Diode (LED) Community Lighting

Presented by: Louis J. Kraus, MD, Chair

Referred to: Reference Committee E
(Theodore Zanker, MD, Chair)

1 INTRODUCTION

2
3 With the advent of highly efficient and bright light emitting diode (LED) lighting, strong economic
4 arguments exist to overhaul the street lighting of U.S. roadways.¹⁻³ Valid and compelling reasons
5 driving the conversion from conventional lighting include the inherent energy efficiency and longer
6 lamp life of LED lighting, leading to savings in energy use and reduced operating costs, including
7 taxes and maintenance, as well as lower air pollution burden from reduced reliance on fossil-based
8 carbon fuels.

9
10 Not all LED light is optimal, however, when used as street lighting. Improper design of the lighting
11 fixture can result in glare, creating a road hazard condition.^{4,5} LED lighting also is available in
12 various color correlated temperatures. Many early designs of white LED lighting generated a color
13 spectrum with excessive blue wavelength. This feature further contributes to disability glare, i.e.,
14 visual impairment due to stray light, as blue wavelengths are associated with more scattering in the
15 human eye, and sufficiently intense blue spectrum damages retinas.^{6,7} The excessive blue spectrum
16 also is environmentally disruptive for many nocturnal species. Accordingly, significant human and
17 environmental concerns are associated with short wavelength (blue) LED emission. Currently,
18 approximately 10% of existing U.S. street lighting has been converted to solid state LED
19 technology, with efforts underway to accelerate this conversion. The Council is undertaking this
20 report to assist in advising communities on selecting among LED lighting options in order to
21 minimize potentially harmful human health and environmental effects.

22 23 METHODS

24
25 English language reports published between 2005 and 2016 were selected from a search of the
26 PubMed and Google Scholar databases using the MeSH terms “light,” “lighting methods,”
27 “color,” “photoc stimulation,” and “adverse effects,” in combination with “circadian
28 rhythm/physiology/radiation effects,” “radiation dosage/effects,” “sleep/physiology,” “ecosystem,”
29 “environment,” and “environmental monitoring.” Additional searches using the text terms “LED”
30 and “community,” “street,” and “roadway lighting” were conducted. Additional information and
31 perspective were supplied by recognized experts in the field.

32 33 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF LED STREET LIGHTS

34
35 The main reason for converting to LED street lighting is energy efficiency; LED lighting can
36 reduce energy consumption by up to 50% compared with conventional high pressure sodium (HPS)

1 lighting. LED lighting has no warm up requirement with a rapid “turn on and off” at full intensity.
2 In the event of a power outage, LED lights can turn on instantly when power is restored, as
3 opposed to sodium-based lighting requiring prolonged warm up periods. LED lighting also has the
4 inherent capability to be dimmed or tuned, so that during off peak usage times (e.g., 1 to 5 AM),
5 further energy savings can be achieved by reducing illumination levels. LED lighting also has a
6 much longer lifetime (15 to 20 years, or 50,000 hours), reducing maintenance costs by decreasing
7 the frequency of fixture or bulb replacement. That lifespan exceeds that of conventional HPS
8 lighting by 2-4 times. Also, LED lighting has no mercury or lead, and does not release any toxic
9 substances if damaged, unlike mercury or HPS lighting. The light output is very consistent across
10 cold or warm temperature gradients. LED lights also do not require any internal reflectors or glass
11 covers, allowing higher efficiency as well, if designed properly.^{8,9}

12
13 Despite the benefits of LED lighting, some potential disadvantages are apparent. The initial cost is
14 higher than conventional lighting; several years of energy savings may be required to recoup that
15 initial expense.¹⁰ The spectral characteristics of LED lighting also can be problematic. LED
16 lighting is inherently narrow bandwidth, with "white" being obtained by adding phosphor coating
17 layers to a high energy (such as blue) LED. These phosphor layers can wear with time leading to a
18 higher spectral response than was designed or intended. Manufacturers address this problem with
19 more resistant coatings, blocking filters, or use of lower color temperature LEDs. With proper
20 design, higher spectral responses can be minimized. LED lighting does not tend to abruptly “burn
21 out,” rather it dims slowly over many years. An LED fixture generally needs to be replaced after it
22 has dimmed by 30% from initial specifications, usually after about 15 to 20 years.^{1,11}

23
24 Depending on the design, a large amount blue light is emitted from some LEDs that appear white
25 to the naked eye. The excess blue and green emissions from some LEDs lead to increased light
26 pollution, as these wavelengths scatter more within the eye and have detrimental environmental
27 and glare effects. LED’s light emissions are characterized by their correlated color temperature
28 (CCT) index.^{12,13} The first generation of LED outdoor lighting and units that are still widely being
29 installed are “4000K” LED units. This nomenclature (Kelvin scale) reflects the equivalent color of
30 a heated metal object to that temperature. The LEDs are cool to the touch and the nomenclature has
31 nothing to do with the operating temperature of the LED itself. By comparison, the CCT associated
32 with daylight light levels is equivalent to 6500K, and high pressure sodium lighting (the current
33 standard) has a CCT of 2100K. Twenty-nine percent of the spectrum of 4000K LED lighting is
34 emitted as blue light, which the human eye perceives as a harsh white color. Due to the point-
35 source nature of LED lighting, studies have shown that this intense blue point source leads to
36 discomfort and disability glare.¹⁴

37
38 More recently engineered LED lighting is now available at 3000K or lower. At 3000K, the human
39 eye still perceives the light as “white,” but it is slightly warmer in tone, and has about 21% of its
40 emission in the blue-appearing part of the spectrum. This emission is still very blue for the
41 nighttime environment, but is a significant improvement over the 4000K lighting because it
42 reduces discomfort and disability glare. Because of different coatings, the energy efficiency of
43 3000K lighting is only 3% less than 4000K, but the light is more pleasing to humans and has less
44 of an impact on wildlife.

45 46 *Glare*

47
48 Disability glare is defined by the Department of Transportation (DOT) as the following:

49
50 “Disability glare occurs when the introduction of stray light into the eye reduces the ability to
51 resolve spatial detail. It is an objective impairment in visual performance.”

1 Classic models of this type of glare attribute the deleterious effects to intraocular light scatter in the
2 eye. Scattering produces a veiling luminance over the retina, which effectively reduces the contrast
3 of stimulus images formed on the retina. The disabling effect of the veiling luminance has serious
4 implications for nighttime driving visibility.¹⁵

5
6 Although LED lighting is cost efficient and inherently directional, it paradoxically can lead to
7 worse glare than conventional lighting. This glare can be greatly minimized by proper lighting
8 design and engineering. Glare can be magnified by improper color temperature of the LED, such as
9 blue-rich LED lighting. LEDs are very intense point sources that cause vision discomfort when
10 viewed by the human eye, especially by older drivers. This effect is magnified by higher color
11 temperature LEDs, because blue light scatters more within the human eye, leading to increased
12 disability glare.¹⁶

13
14 In addition to disability glare and its impact on drivers, many residents are unhappy with bright
15 LED lights. In many localities where 4000K and higher lighting has been installed, community
16 complaints of glare and a “prison atmosphere” by the high intensity blue-rich lighting are common.
17 Residents in Seattle, WA have demanded shielding, complaining they need heavy drapes to be
18 comfortable in their own homes at night.¹⁷ Residents in Davis, CA demanded and succeeded in
19 getting a complete replacement of the originally installed 4000K LED lights with the 3000K
20 version throughout the town at great expense.¹⁸ In Cambridge, MA, 4000K lighting with dimming
21 controls was installed to mitigate the harsh blue-rich lighting late at night. Even in places with a
22 high level of ambient nighttime lighting, such as Queens in New York City, many complaints were
23 made about the harshness and glare from 4000K lighting.¹⁹ In contrast, 3000K lighting has been
24 much better received by citizens in general.

25 26 *Unshielded LED Lighting*

27
28 Unshielded LED lighting causes significant discomfort from glare. A French government report
29 published in 2013 stated that due to the point source nature of LED lighting, the luminance level of
30 unshielded LED lighting is sufficiently high to cause visual discomfort regardless of the position,
31 as long as it is in the field of vision. As the emission surfaces of LEDs are highly concentrated
32 point sources, the luminance of each individual source easily exceeds the level of visual
33 discomfort, in some cases by a factor of 1000.¹⁷

34
35 Discomfort and disability glare can decrease visual acuity, decreasing safety and creating a road
36 hazard. Various testing measures have been devised to determine and quantify the level of glare
37 and vision impairment by poorly designed LED lighting.²⁰ Lighting installations are typically
38 tested by measuring foot-candles per square meter on the ground. This is useful for determining the
39 efficiency and evenness of lighting installations. This method, however, does not take into account
40 the human biological response to the point source. It is well known that unshielded light sources
41 cause pupillary constriction, leading to worse nighttime vision between lighting fixtures and
42 causing a “veil of illuminance” beyond the lighting fixture. This leads to worse vision than if the
43 light never existed at all, defeating the purpose of the lighting fixture. Ideally LED lighting
44 installations should be tested in real life scenarios with effects on visual acuity evaluated in order to
45 ascertain the best designs for public safety.

46 47 *Proper Shielding*

48
49 With any LED lighting, proper attention should be paid to the design and engineering features.
50 LED lighting is inherently a bright point source and can cause eye fatigue and disability glare if it
51 is allowed to directly shine into human eyes from roadway lighting. This is mitigated by proper

1 design, shielding and installation ensuring that no light shines above 80 degrees from the
2 horizontal. Proper shielding also should be used to prevent light trespass into homes alongside the
3 road, a common cause of citizen complaints. Unlike current HPS street lighting, LEDs have the
4 ability to be controlled electronically and dimmed from a central location. Providing this additional
5 control increases the installation cost, but may be worthwhile because it increases long term energy
6 savings and minimizes detrimental human and environmental lighting effects. In environmentally
7 sensitive or rural areas where wildlife can be especially affected (e.g., near national parks or bio-
8 rich zones where nocturnal animals need such protection), strong consideration should be made for
9 lower emission LEDs (e.g., 3000K or lower lighting with effective shielding). Strong consideration
10 also should be given to the use of filters to block blue wavelengths (as used in Hawaii), or to the
11 use of inherent amber LEDs, such as those deployed in Quebec. Blue light scatters more widely
12 (the reason the daytime sky is “blue”), and unshielded blue-rich lighting that travels along the
13 horizontal plane increases glare and dramatically increases the nighttime sky glow caused by
14 excessive light pollution.

15 16 POTENTIAL HEALTH EFFECTS OF “WHITE” LED STREET LIGHTING

17
18 Much has been learned over the past decade about the potential adverse health effects of electric
19 light exposure, particularly at night.²¹⁻²⁵ The core concern is disruption of circadian rhythmicity.
20 With waning ambient light, and in the absence of electric lighting, humans begin the transition to
21 nighttime physiology at about dusk; melatonin blood concentrations rise, body temperature drops,
22 sleepiness grows, and hunger abates, along with several other responses.

23
24 A number of controlled laboratory studies have shown delays in the normal transition to nighttime
25 physiology from evening exposure to tablet computer screens, backlit e-readers, and room light
26 typical of residential settings.²⁶⁻²⁸ These effects are wavelength and intensity dependent,
27 implicating bright, short wavelength (blue) electric light sources as disrupting transition. These
28 effects are not seen with dimmer, longer wavelength light (as from wood fires or low wattage
29 incandescent bulbs). In human studies, a short-term detriment in sleep quality has been observed
30 after exposure to short wavelength light before bedtime. Although data are still emerging, some
31 evidence supports a long-term increase in the risk for cancer, diabetes, cardiovascular disease and
32 obesity from chronic sleep disruption or shiftwork and associated with exposure to brighter light
33 sources in the evening or night.^{25,29}

34
35 Electric lights differ in terms of their circadian impact.³⁰ Understanding the neuroscience of
36 circadian light perception can help optimize the design of electric lighting to minimize circadian
37 disruption and improve visual effectiveness. White LED streetlights are currently being marketed
38 to cities and towns throughout the country in the name of energy efficiency and long term cost
39 savings, but such lights have a spectrum containing a strong spike at the wavelength that most
40 effectively suppresses melatonin during the night. It is estimated that a “white” LED lamp is at
41 least 5 times more powerful in influencing circadian physiology than a high pressure sodium light
42 based on melatonin suppression.³¹ Recent large surveys found that brighter residential nighttime
43 lighting is associated with reduced sleep time, dissatisfaction with sleep quality, nighttime
44 awakenings, excessive sleepiness, impaired daytime functioning, and obesity.^{29,32} Thus, white LED
45 street lighting patterns also could contribute to the risk of chronic disease in the populations of
46 cities in which they have been installed. Measurements at street level from white LED street lamps
47 are needed to more accurately assess the potential circadian impact of evening/nighttime exposure
48 to these lights.

1 ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS OF LED LIGHTING

2
3 The detrimental effects of inefficient lighting are not limited to humans; 60% of animals are
4 nocturnal and are potentially adversely affected by exposure to nighttime electrical lighting. Many
5 birds navigate by the moon and star reflections at night; excessive nighttime lighting can lead to
6 reflections on glass high rise towers and other objects, leading to confusion, collisions and
7 death.³³ Many insects need a dark environment to procreate, the most obvious example being
8 lightning bugs that cannot “see” each other when light pollution is pronounced. Other
9 environmentally beneficial insects are attracted to blue-rich lighting, circling under them until they
10 are exhausted and die.^{34,35} Unshielded lighting on beach areas has led to a massive drop in turtle
11 populations as hatchlings are disoriented by electrical light and sky glow, preventing them from
12 reaching the water safely.³⁵⁻³⁷ Excessive outdoor lighting diverts the hatchlings inland to their
13 demise. Even bridge lighting that is “too blue” has been shown to inhibit upstream migration of
14 certain fish species such as salmon returning to spawn. One such overly lit bridge in Washington
15 State now is shut off during salmon spawning season.

16
17 Recognizing the detrimental effects of light pollution on nocturnal species, U.S. national parks
18 have adopted best lighting practices and now require minimal and shielded lighting. Light pollution
19 along the borders of national parks leads to detrimental effects on the local bio-environment. For
20 example, the glow of Miami, FL extends throughout the Everglades National Park. Proper
21 shielding and proper color temperature of the lighting installations can greatly minimize these types
22 of harmful effects on our environment.

23
24 CONCLUSION

25
26 Current AMA Policy supports efforts to reduce light pollution. Specific to street lighting, Policy H-
27 135.932 supports the implementation of technologies to reduce glare from roadway lighting. Thus,
28 the Council recommends that communities considering conversion to energy efficient LED street
29 lighting use lower CCT lights that will minimize potential health and environmental effects. The
30 Council previously reviewed the adverse health effects of nighttime lighting, and concluded that
31 pervasive use of nighttime lighting disrupts various biological processes, creating potentially
32 harmful health effects related to disability glare and sleep disturbance.²⁵

33
34 RECOMMENDATIONS

35
36 The Council on Science and Public Health recommends that the following statements be adopted,
37 and the remainder of the report filed.

- 38
39 1. That our American Medical Association (AMA) support the proper conversion to community-
40 based Light Emitting Diode (LED) lighting, which reduces energy consumption and decreases
41 the use of fossil fuels. (New HOD Policy)
42
43 2. That our AMA encourage minimizing and controlling blue-rich environmental lighting by
44 using the lowest emission of blue light possible to reduce glare. (New HOD Policy)
45
46 3. That our AMA encourage the use of 3000K or lower lighting for outdoor installations such as
47 roadways. All LED lighting should be properly shielded to minimize glare and detrimental
48 human and environmental effects, and consideration should be given to utilize the ability of
49 LED lighting to be dimmed for off-peak time periods. (New HOD Policy)

Fiscal Note: Less than \$500

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